

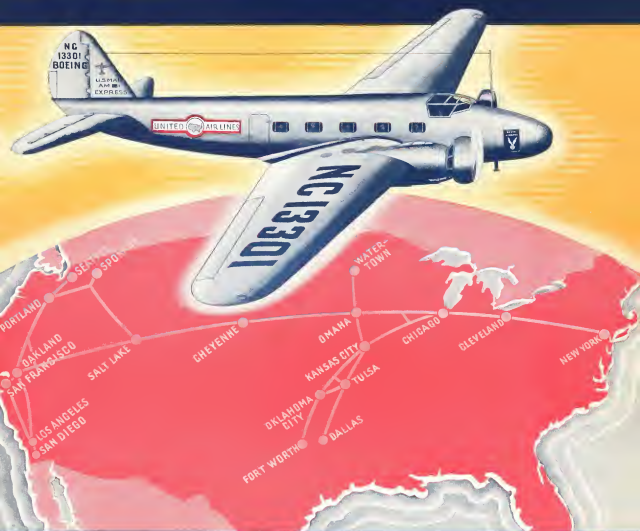
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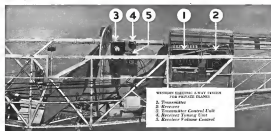
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The Case for the Transport Autogiro

By W. Laurence LePage

Crossing Explorer, Day and Zimmerman, Inc.



WHEN the Editor of *Aviation* invited me to write about large load-carrying capacity autogiros, I was at first inclined to look unfavorably on the idea. Recent studies of the possibilities of large autogiros, however, have proved that the application is widely used and full of immediate promise. Furthermore, it now seems evident that some air transport operators are starting to look around for passenger carrying equipment which will enable them conveniently to tap new sources of business with which to augment present service, business which is not readily available with present fixed wing equipment.

The transport autogiro

As he pointed out, the autogiro for transport must be capable of carrying a useful load at high speed economically, conveniently, and safely. It should be remembered that load capacity, speed, economy, convenience and safety are relative properties and the basis of consideration is, in each case, very arbitrary.

For example, suppose we compare two aircraft, the one having a cruising speed of 135 m.p.h. and the other moving at only 110 m.p.h. The first aircraft we will assume uses the regular airports and, therefore, we must count upon at least 30 minutes of ground time at each end of the air service in order to get a true picture of transportation time between two points. In the second case, however, the machine, we will assume, is capable of using down-to-earth landing facilities or

some reference such as a park even close to the center of the city. In this case there will be no ground time included in the schedule. Table 2 will show that in

...a great deal of time and effort.

is a water machine, and efficiency is more convenient one, with the slower step up to distances of 400 miles. Other things being equal, then, the slower machine would actually provide the faster air transportation, and from the standpoint of speed alone (no say nothing of convenience) would be the better type to adopt. This merely serves to illustrate the very arbitrary basis of some comparisons and the impossibility of drawing sound conclusions without taking into account all pertinent factors.

Load carrying capacity

When we consider the load carrying capacities which can be ascertained for the large transverse bearings we have plenty of data from which to predict. The small bearings built to date have proved to be good load carriers and there is nothing in the fundamental theory of lift by rotating articulated blades to indicate that this should not be so.

In Tables II, III and IV, the loads on load capacity have been collected for characteristic arthropods and anagostids. It will be seen that useful loads are as a percentage of gross weights are not very far out of line between the two groups. The average useful load for the 16 species of anagostids for the analogous emergence was 356 per cent for the transparent and 278 per cent for the tawny arthropods.

Emerging arthropods have been designed to meet conventional loads of structural materials, and are not limited by weight. This is particularly true of the rotor system and pylons, and has been due to an unquestionably sound policy of the two aerospace industries in this country to allow with structural materials the maximum possible safety factor in design. This point is quite obvious, and we will no longer hesitate to take advantage of the inherent characteristics of anagostic rotors, which, due to the very fundamentals of these species, are the most efficient and lightest, simply loaded stressors. Personnel

Load per horsepower

As to the useful loads per horsepower, we again find workable facts, with the engines giving an average figure of 38 lb./hp., the speed transport plane 42 lb./hp., and the usual plane of lower speed 30 lb./hp. Here the question of speed began to enter the picture and explain the lagging of the curve in this respect. We shall come to the question of speed, but it is well to point out here that the power required for the engines is not based upon its load-carrying capacity, and that although there have been variations in tests without any appreciable loss of speed.

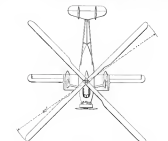
the rate of climb being the principal factor of performance affected. This is to be expected as it would also be true in the case of the airplane.

Source:

Autogenic bulk so data have been considerably slower than their segmental implants. This is not an insurmountable problem, the possibilities are by no means exhausted, and the tremendous progress which has been made in autogenic design during the past few years is indicative of no lack of competence on the part of those responsible to harness still further the very highly complex mechanism of the autogenic rotor system so that these mechanisms will move forward with more speed and less noise.

Table 1: Comparison of Schedule Times, Antagonists and Side-effects

	At Time	Total available Ppm	Free Ppm ground	Acid-soluble Ppm
140	0.23	1.22	1.00	0.18
160	0.44	1.66	1.22	0.44
180	1.00	2.00	1.00	1.00
200	1.25	2.25	1.00	1.25
220	1.33	2.33	1.00	1.33
240	1.33	2.33	1.00	1.33
260	1.33	2.33	1.00	1.33
280	1.33	2.33	1.00	1.33
300	1.33	2.33	1.00	1.33



One interpretation of the design requirements set forth by Mr. Le Page for a transponder transport satellite with 700-kg. weight

Table III: Useful Load and Power of Airplane—Speed Transport Types

Feature	Type				
	Strong	Control	General	Lookback	Random
Weight decay (k)	242	202	254	206	191
α Control (k)	8,306	10,244	1,100	3,333	4,211
β Control (k)	4,389	5,545	5,000	1,400	3,181
γ Control (k)	11,000	10,000	3,000	3,000	8,000
δ Regular (k)	8,100	50	10	80	100
Power (k)	1,100	1,000	200	100	100
Dropout (k)	5,500	5,500	4,500	1,200	6,000

There is a very definite technical reason for expecting higher speeds of the integrator. The fully cantilevered rotor, without droop or interblade eddy, can tolerate an increase in speed of the order of 10-15 per cent. This has been proved on ships which have been flying experimentally for some time. There are other engineering developments now under way which will lead to higher engine speeds. It is therefore not surprising that it was found that, whereas the loading speed of the integrator varies with the disk size and therefore the disk loading, (just as in an airplane) is proportional to the wing area) the top speed of the 'gears is a function of the integrator which for a given design controls the revolutions per minute at the rotor. There is consequently a wide range of possible top speeds for a given

Since the antigrav is in all respects very similar to an airplane except for the rotor, that part of its structure other than the rotating system is susceptible to the same methods of drag reduction as have been successfully employed to reach higher airplane speeds. The rotor involves a problem of cutting profile drag (since the induced drag is in any case extremely low) and, as we find methods of doing this, so we can anticipate higher speeds. Furthermore, because the air speed of the rotor elements does not increase in direct proportion to the speed

of the ship, there are good reasons for believing that the managers become more efficient at the higher velocities, whether these higher velocities are achieved by more power or by more efficient design.

Characteristics

Let us examine the general characteristics of a transport scenario to fill a specific need. A very likely type is shown in the accompanying diagram, although there are many other interpretations of the same situation.

This particular design, however, will indicate by example some of the problems and suitable methods for their solution.

Table III. Useful Load and Power of Airplanes—Small Types

Factor	Type			
	High-Take °C	Mean °A	Meanrange	Value ±
Weightage (g) (Sh)	1.643	1.364	1.620	1.100
A. Total feed (Sh)	1.154	800	444	536
B. Gross weight (Sh)	2.150	2.126	1.875	1.989
A of B (g/cock)	50.4	38.2	39.4	36.3
Feed (g)	200	570	114	123
Cal feed/Consumes	4.15	3.19	5.43	4

Table IV: Unified Limit and Force of Autogloss

Feature	Types					FGS 1 (percent)
	FA-L	FA-H	FA-F	SL	SL-F	
average (SD)	1.10 (.10)	1.04 (.10)	1.10 (.10)	1.10 (.10)	1.00 (.10)	1.00 (.10)
in range (SD)	4.00 (.00)	4.00 (.00)	4.00 (.00)	4.00 (.00)	4.00 (.00)	4.00 (.00)
max (range)	14.0 (10)	14.0 (10)	14.0 (10)	14.0 (10)	14.0 (10)	14.0 (10)
max- min (range)	13.0 (10)	13.0 (10)	13.0 (10)	13.0 (10)	13.0 (10)	13.0 (10)
max/min range	4.0 (10)	4.0 (10)	4.0 (10)	4.0 (10)	4.0 (10)	4.0 (10)

In general, the device by the outtrigger tail location of the pilot, 8 tails are novel. The cuts the adoption of a new to a perfect stress naturally in this form.

Enter the tail loads. Eight are small coupes, the fixed wing airplane wing structure is design condition. Is a step at advantageous to relieve loading loads and design which use the flight con-

By moving the tail, the externality of the stock is practical to include a stock the weights carried appreciable—1,000 lbs consideration.

The pilot cockpit pylons structure, this is visible from the stern. Furthermore, the high pilot permits the vessel to be moved further

the free and tilt moves of gravity for change. This will be a vital and unique design for the limits within which mechanically stable is a retrofitted C.G. movement to be desirable.

The possibility of a mechanism for the rotation of the controlling element of the pylon structure, thus slip. Propeller can be an influence on the clearance installation.

among little details which is often perceived the danger from carrying through a scheme to its logical conclusion.

A device for eliminating this problem is under consideration and if it is adopted will permit a considerable reduction in the overall height of the ship. In the present case the netce could be lowered by approximately 2 ft., which would bring it slightly higher than the top of the pilot's cab, resulting in a marked improvement in visibility.

The diameters of the wide undercarriage of the transport integrator are adjustable. The purpose is not so much to reduce the load resistance as to cut down the interference drag due to the close proximity of the wheels and track shoes to the under side of the structure.

Size of the rotor

One of the most discussed questions pertaining to the large load carrying capacities is that of the rotor and its size. It has been felt that the diameter of the rotor would have to be excessive and that the ship would therefore become quite unwieldy. This, however, is not the case for scale effect is very much in one favor to the size increases and it will be both practical and, I believe, essential, to operate with heavier disk loadings than have been considered advisable in the past.

To analyze this phase of the subject's extensive study of the theory has been made as it applies to large diameter rates of conventional bearings and somewhat smaller rates of slightly heavier diameter bearings. Results indicate definite



War versions



See, left: Before Giovanni's raid on Vienna—the S.V.A. as a single-seat airplane (1917). Above: After the transformation—the S.V.A. became the standard for reconnaissance (1918). Left: The Fiat B-1 of the last stages of the Fiat C-111.



Italy's Eyes of the Air



Modern types evolve

Short left: Replacements for the S.V.A. In 1922, the Fiat A-12, here, became a scout machine for advanced landing. Above, right: The B-11 of 1925 for Fiat, noted in the famous 80 miles per hour. Above: The airplane appears in the Fiat A-12, a new line, produced in active service through 1931. Left: One of the latest—the Caproni C-111, designed in a road plane, but later shown in Italy.

In the October issue of *Aviation* Commander Scarsone, present and during the War, machine Air Attache at the Italian Embassy at Washington, and now on active service with the Italian Air Force, began a discussion of Italy's Air Fleet with a study of the bombardment arm. In this, the second of three articles, the discussion turns to observation and reconnaissance types both on land and sea.

The Equipment of Air Forces

ITALY (PART II) OBSERVATION AND RECONNAISSANCE

By Comdr. Salvo Scarsone

IN THE very early days of military aviation, the airplane was limited to use in observation and reconnaissance. Few airplanes of the period could do much more than snigger off the ground and it was thought improbable that any effective quantity of guns, bombs or ammunition could ever be carried. The story of early observation types in Italy is, therefore, the story of the airplane itself.

Turning back the pages of history we find the names of Farini, who built a successful airplane about 1868, and Colombini who, with Farini, carried planes in the Aerial Circus of Brescia in 1899. A little later two other names appear, those of Farini, who built a successful airplane about 1868, and Colombini who, with Farini, carried planes in the Aerial Circus of Brescia in 1899. A little later two other names appear, those of Farini, who built a successful airplane about 1868, and Colombini who, with Farini, carried planes in the Aerial Circus of Brescia in 1899.

As far as engines were concerned, the situation was decidedly better, for the Italian automobile industry was soon in position to supply satisfactory engines for aviation work. In 1915 the Fiat factory produced the A-12, a 100 hp. engine with which the early Caproni bombers were equipped. The same year Isotta Fraschini brought out the V-6, a six-cylinder engine of 150 hp. 1916 saw three new engines: the Fiat A-12 of 240 hp., the Isotta Fraschini V-5 of 200 hp., and the Colombo, 150 hp. All were of the water-cooled in-line cylinder type. The grade of the War-time design output occurred in 1917 when five new types appeared. Another well-known

automobile with which two of the half dozen airplanes were equipped which went to the front at the outbreak of the War in May, 1915.

As in the case of bombardment machines, however, Italy built an adequate design or production facilities for various aircraft phases at the outbreak of hostilities, and had to rely upon her ability for equipment until Italian production caught up with the demand. Farina, Nappini, Geronzi, Visoni, and other designs were suggested, and an Isotta Fraschini (S.A.S.L.), produced a machine which was a copy of an Arrifit captured intact from the Austrians.

The earlier observation types were built around the Fiat A-12 engine of which some 3,000 units were produced. Four distinct types appeared with this power plant, the S.P. 1 of 1915, the S.P. 2, the Pomilio and the MAJ, all in 1917. The S.P. type was not original, but was a hybrid resulting from Caudron, Visoni and Pomilio types. The Pomilio and the MAJ, although not extensively used, represented a step forward in Italian design and were the last to show foreign influence. They yielded in 1917 to an all-Italian designed and built machine, the S.V.A.

Two officers of the Italian Air Force, Capitanes Nappini and Visoni, were

automobile company, the S.P.A., entered the field with the S.A., an engine of 200 hp. Fiat brought the A-12 series up to 300 hp., and brought out a new A-14 engine of 400 hp., Isotta Fraschini produced the V-6 of 250 hp., and Colombo pushed his engine up to 350 hp. with a new type E. Italy then had airplane engines available at the ready arms for production for various purposes, first the bombers in 1915 with the in England Caproni's reconnaissance in 1917 with the S.V.A., and last of all, the pursuit in 1918 with the Delfino.

Further observation planes

The earlier observation types were built around the Fiat A-12 engine of which some 3,000 units were produced. Four distinct types appeared with this power plant, the S.P. 1 of 1915, the S.P. 2, the Pomilio and the MAJ, all in 1917. The S.P. type was not original, but was a hybrid resulting from Caudron, Visoni and Pomilio types. The Pomilio and the MAJ, although not extensively used, represented a step forward in Italian design and were the last to show foreign influence. They yielded in 1917 to an all-Italian designed and built machine, the S.V.A.

Two officers of the Italian Air Force, Capitanes Nappini and Visoni, were



responsible for the design of the new reconnaissance plane. The designation S.V.A. was derived from the name of the manufacturer, the Aerale firm of Geneva. The first squadron with this new equipment was organized in 1915 with the present title as one of the pilots. The machine represented not a step, but a jump forward in the advancement of military aeronautical construction. Even today, the S.V.A. may still be rated as a modern machine in the 200-hp. field.

As already produced, the 5VA was a simple and lighter tank than the design of IFV-ammunition, which was not at that time a pilot, to command personally. And over Vienna, began its transformation into a VMA. In the IFV-ammunition tank, the gasoline tank was eliminated to permit the phasing of the entire seat. The performance of the machine with the additional load was not good. The 5VA was also equipped with a greater-chamber, could be carried regularly behind the pilot. Ammunition produced some 1,300 of this type. Although one chief observation they passed before the end of the War, the R-3 by Fiat, its performance was not sufficiently good to warrant extensive replacement of the 5VA, and the latter type continued the backbone of Italian reconnaissance until the end of the war.

A hydrogen designed in 1917 the S.V.A. known as *Arctique* (which translates under military designations as "polar winged turbine engine"), fitted with single SVA type 6A engine of 200 hp. The engine was of characteristic design with N type struts. (It should be noted in this connection that N struts in Italian designs be in places normal to the thrust and Composite American and British practice in which the struts in N struts be in places parallel to the line of flight.) The control wires to the tail main were run entirely inside the fuselage. In testing, the fuselage was suspended to permit all of the engine and bearing components to move freely. Wings and tail surfaces were below control.

Preparation practice

Bakers going on with the manufacture of the modern equipment of the Independent Air Force for the war in Europe. A few paragraphs outlining the relationship which exists between the Italian Government and the producers of military aircraft. Up to 1933 when the Independent Air Force was created, the private producers were virtually in a position to determine the specifications covering military airplanes and engines. With the establishment of the Air Ministry, however, a centralized body of officers, who assembled what were known as "boards" with the necessary representatives of the various departments and production districts, and therefore the construction of

The LZ-129, newest and largest of the Zeppelin line, is equally approaching completion at Friedrichshafen, Germany, and should be ready for active trans-Atlantic passenger service next summer. First-hand impressions of the ship are presented herewith by Mr. Lambrecht, who has recently returned to the United States after a visit to the Zeppelin plant in Germany.

Zeppelin's New Airliner

By Wolfgang Lambrecht

Manager, Airverkehrsgesellschaft, Hindenburg-Reisen Ltd.

ON SEPT. 16 of this year the Graf Zeppelin completed five years of passenger mail and freight service, joining its weeks. Her spectacular flights have led to regular and unintermittent trips across the North Atlantic between Germany and Brazil. These trips are now commonplace and are undertaken by average passengers seeking a quick and agreeable mode of transatlantic travel. They have ceased to appear as headlines and are relegated to occasional small paragraphs buried in a mass of obscure items.

The builders of the Graf Zeppelin were men of vision who realized even during her construction that the liner, under which they worked, would make this craft an experimental ship, the design and construction of which would soon become obsolete. Had they been able to build a larger liner instead of adapting the size of the ship to the one available at Friedrichshafen they would have constructed the Graf Zeppelin much larger and then dated her better for the task in post-war conditions. It is one of the merits of zeppelin engineering that in all this time the crew has been able, without accident, to dock the dirigible in a harbor not more than 3 ft higher than the ship itself. These limitations, however, are not, and so the Germans have not allowed the construction of a craft whose size will place it out of the scale of equipment and whose equipment and accommodations will make it a commercial undertaking of several nations—the LZ-129. Construction of the ship, designed by Ludwig Dorn, was started in February, 1927. Trials are scheduled for the fall of 1934.

A more glance into the plant herself at Friedrichshafen will confirm the visitor that the new craft will surpass all previous models. Its enormous dimensions suggest colossal dimensions. The huge masts rise, over 130 ft. There are to be 15 main masts and 32



Interior being worked on the Graf Zeppelin over the North Atlantic in the winter and the summer.

auxiliary masts, forming 16 comparison for many gas cells. Completed, the giant will have 140 ft. from gondola to tail top, and its length will exceed 812 ft. Its capacity will reach 7,570,000 cu ft, making it the largest hydrogen-filled craft. The frame is constructed of longitudinal and transverse girders of duralumin, the whole structure strengthened with wire, and follows standard Zeppelin practice. The main in the front section are 36 angled pylons. The covering will be draped with an aluminum powder to minimize the effect of heat rays. Once covered but bulk will be equalized by the stream lines of her construction and, although less slender than the Graf Zeppelin, she will appear quite proportionate. Gas bags will be of polyethylene film as heretofore, but at a preliminary stage, material, specially fabricated.

The station gas compartments will be filled with helium, although this gas is not used continuously. It is used in the light that trial flights will be made with hydrogen, which has a greater lifting capacity, and the danger of accident is gradually elevated by the first great construction of the ship. The masts

are higher on the outside in the Graf Zeppelin, their great arrangement gives greater space in the ship and the resistance is not considerable. Additional safety is gained by providing the individual gas cells with valves. In practice it is possible that balloons will be used to cushion the outer cells and only the inner cells may contain hydrogen. These would then be protected by the helium cells, and in case of emergency the hydrogen could be allowed to escape without any considerable accident. This safety would not be sacrificed and a considerable saving in operating cost would be effected. However, a slight increase in lift would be gained.

The engine, as has been suggested, are suspended from the ship. This engine is a unit in itself and carries all the necessary equipment for successful operation. They are accessible from lateral passageways which also serve for moving of gas pistons. The diesel engine operates on crude oil stored in the tank, as a great number of individual containers connected to a distribution system, standing the engine in the ship. The fuel load will amount to some 1,800,000 lb. The size of

PHOTO BY THE ZEPPELIN WORKS, FRIEDRICHSHAFEN, GERMANY



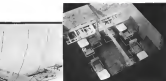
Arrangement of the passenger accommodations on the LZ-129.

engine and its of inestimable value at a safety factor and is calculated to save some to eight long tons of fuel. The engine runs 4,800 hp. The dirigible will be able to travel 8,000 miles without refueling and will maintain a cruising speed of 80 mph.

The ship will be able to accommodate 50 passengers and 30 tons of payload in addition to its crew of 35. In case of emergency the passenger accommodations can be increased to give quarters for 80 persons. In North Atlantic service this ship would be able to travel from coast to coast in 40 to 42 hours continuous and in 60 to 62 hours non-stop.

Costs and study has been devoted to the construction of other and smaller ships. Thus, while the Graf Zeppelin, the LZ-129 has its control and navigation compartments entirely separated from those frequented by the passengers. This plan's holder, which is 10 ft in length, will be housed in the lower third of the hull but in the middle.

Working accommodations larger and more comfortable than those of the Graf Zeppelin, which had only one small cabin and twelve cots, have been provided. The LZ-129 will have two larger groups of quarters arranged two promenade decks and 25 staterooms with 30 beds. The LZ-129 has four lanes in each row for 16 passengers in the Graf Zeppelin, or a total floor space of 5,500 sq ft, and fully one half of the space is available for social gathering. The great smoking room in the ship will be a feature for the traveling public, also



An illustration in passenger accommodations the Graf Zeppelin.



The "at deck, social hall, and staterooms" of the LZ-129.

smoking was necessarily prohibited in the Graf Zeppelin.

Arrangement and decoration of the passenger accommodations is entirely new and different from August Nordenskiöld of Berlin has been concerned with the most important task. No parts have been spared in providing at the most complete and at the same time most decorative arrangement. The difficulty of the task lay in establishing first of all, a basic principle of "an airship society," for it was necessary to combine the utmost economy of space and weight with a sense of grace and airship. Every superfluous detail was to be rejected in dead weight, and every unnecessary space such as a gross entrance of costly space.

Next to the control gondola there are four long rows of windows which belong to the two 45 ft. promenade decks. The passenger rooms for the first section of the gondola, entirely in the middle of the ship in two decks—now above the other. The main deck contains the roomy dining hall with 38 tables, adjoining is the promenade with large windows. On the starboard side in the main hall and the main sitting and reading room, further the second promenade. Adjoining it is the 25 roomy

staterooms, which can be used singly or jointly and are furnished with running hot and cold water.

On the lower deck are located the kitchen with its electric stove and hot-plates, equipment, the officers' and crew's quarters, the chief steward's office, lockers, toilets, and the system of mail and baggage. A and B deck are connected by a broad staircase. Entrance is made by stairs which can be drawn into the body of the ship.

An inspection of the passenger quarters will reveal extreme simplicity of form. The general metal furniture, the choice of colors is blue, white and cherry, the combination of the northern and southern features with attention to the greatest development of the interior, and a prominent of the route marked in half-eye view contribute to the decorative scheme.

Combined thus, the size of the craft, her several mechanical features, and the spacious, comfortable, and artistic social quarters make the LZ-129 a most worthy stride in the air travel of the present. After the first flights the dirigible will begin active service as a regular service of the Graf Zeppelin between Europe and South America.

creasing speed, that provides quality that engineers are struggling to increase, is being squandered thoughtlessly in time leakage at station stops, with the result that performance is deteriorated and schedules work-fitted. The accompanying article is based on one of the first serious attempts to make an exact study of the factors, other than existing speed, that cause airline schedules to go astray.

Schedule Making

By Otto E. Kirschner

ONLY recently has it been realized that factors other than existing speed play a very important part in the elapsed time between two air transport terminals, and this time is the real profit which air transportation has to offer to the traveling public. The demands of the travel toward higher cruising speeds, now considerably in evidence, should not overshadow the importance of the other factors which are quite as necessary to the final schedule of the airplane. In building up a schedule for a particular airplane these are:

- 1 The time taken to taxi the airplane between the station ramp and point of take-off, and from the landing point to the station ramp.
- 2 The time required for the pilot to run up and check the engine, as expressed just prior to take-off.
- 3 The time taken to climb from take-off, or slide to landing, in ascending to or from the cruise.
- 4 The cruising speed of the airplane under recommended engine operating conditions.
- 5 The average prevailing wind to be encountered on the course for the station to station.
- 6 The flight distance between stations.
- 7 The time taken to handle the cargo and re-load the airplane.

The position in the past has been to make rough estimates of time when for these operations, since the desire nature of some of them, especially considering wind allowance, had way to lead that no more reliable results could be obtained by an exact study. This policy led to constant adjustments of schedules with accompanying confusion on the line and an unpleasant effect on passengers who depended upon the regularity of the service for business travel.

Whenever possible time study was used in the investigation herein described to arrive at definite values for

these factors. In each case a large number of exact probable results that can be assumed to be representative.

Ground landing

In the construction of ground landing it was found by means of time study that airplanes taxi to take-off at the rate of approximately 20 m.p.h. but, when coming in from the landing point to the landing ramps, they arrive at only 15 m.p.h. In spite of the slower speed, however, the time required to cover a definite distance is less when coming in than when going out to take-off. This may be explained by the fact that landing airplanes do not coast to a full stop immediately but are at motion at the landing point also, because of the benefit of the initial start, over the distance in less time. In leaving the ramp, the airplane must first accelerate from a standstill after getting the go-ahead from the dispatcher. Fig. 1 is a plot of the relation of time to distance required to taxi from or to the landing ramp. The type of airplane does not have any effect on the results obtained. The airplane is along a straight line, indicating the accuracy which may be obtained by using this curve for future schedule formation.

At the end of landing prior to taxiing the general practice is to check the operating condition of each engine. The time required for this operation usually is not appreciated. Fig. 2 shows the wind allowance in the time that exists between single engine and two-engine start. The large portion of the time is required in preparing before run-up, by setting the brakes, etc., and after run-up, in turning the airplane around for the take-off, as the majority of airplanes taxi into the wind in this operation.

The actual time for taxi-out and maneuvering data position on the course it must take previously realized except in such cases where it is possible



Fig. 1. Time required to taxi between station ramp and point of landing or take-off. The airplane is shown indicate the nature of accurate when average conditions are taken to determine the point on the curve.



Fig. 2. Time required to taxi on ramp after take-off.



Fig. 3. Time and number of engines required to maneuver in at station.

to take-off directly on course. In no case was this maneuvering found to be more than 240 feet, and the time required for this operation of maneuvering averaged 25 minutes (Fig. 3). In case of maneuvering for a landing it was found that in the majority of instances maneuvers were greater than 240 feet. This is due to the existing requirement of many airports and can result in loss of valuable time.

In the future the time required for landing should be carefully reduced through close contact by airplane radio with the station tower controls and in question, in some of the larger cities

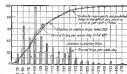


Fig. 4. Distance-flight distance distance between stations. The airplane is shown indicate the nature of accurate when average conditions are taken to determine the point on the curve.

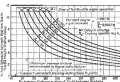


Fig. 5. Plotting the power plant to make up time deficit and make schedule.

by means of the information sent out by the control tower observes, the pilot can glide into the field with the minimum amount of circling about the airport. The importance of a control tower observer, in his advantageous position for imparting information on field conditions and extent of airplane movements on the ground, to the pilot in flight about to make a landing, is not fully realized. It is surprising how few of the larger air passenger terminals utilize this method of control. With a knowledge of the prevailing winds at the fields from which an operation is taking place it is now possible to determine the exact time allowance which should be made for taxiing out, run-up and take-off, or for landing and taxiing in. In the formation of schedules, the special regulations of the fields involved must be investigated to determine dimensions from normal procedure in flight maneuvers. The time of day must be considered, as on some airports special maneuvering conditions apply after sundown.

Station to station time

The prevailing wind between two stations in the United States may be determined from the Monthly Weather Review of the Department of Agriculture. Selection of the most adverse wind for the average will depend on the policy

of the operating company as to what percentage of schedules are to be completed on time. A wind allowance nearer the average for a particular season of the year should be selected for a larger percentage of schedules made good. Changes in schedules are more frequent than one would be discouraged because of interference with schedules of neighboring lines. Knowing this, prevailing wind and wind direction it is necessary to correct the airplane cruising speed. Graphical methods for determining this correction need not be discussed here, as they may be found in any text on aerial navigation.

An analysis of the distribution of stations based on flight distances led to very interesting results. Only three stations were considered which had

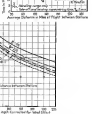


Fig. 6. Plot on one segment. A study of the effect of cruising speed on elapsed time. Fig. 7. Plot on two segments.



Fig. 7. Effect of time loss on station to station cruising speed.

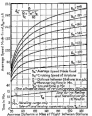


Fig. 8. Station to station flight distance. The airplane is shown indicate the nature of accurate when average conditions are taken to determine the point on the curve.



Fig. 9. Plot on two segments. A study of the effect of cruising speed on elapsed time. Fig. 10. Plot on three segments.

scheduled types of at least one per weekday. Fig. 8 shows the number of small station-to-station flights. Those in the group from 75-100 miles in length represent a maximum and 80 per cent of all runs in this country are over distances of less than 200 miles. The service for the country as a whole is a little better than two round trips per

great deal of deliberation. We are now engaged in a national program of spending more than \$3,000,000,000 upon public works. The plan is an admirable one, but if the world hangs into finance and we have no fire extinguisher ready to our hand to protect our own houses we shall gain but little advantage from new bridges and dams and tunnels and hospitals. As the political scene appears at the moment when this editorial is written, it would be no more than a reasonable precaution to allot 30 per cent of the public works money to the enlargement of military and naval expenditures over the next two years, and to give to the development of our military air power a half of the total sum so set aside. If we look out either in the Far East or in Europe, particularly the latter, it will be predominantly as air war. In planning for our own protection we shall have to lay permanent stress upon aviation.

Let us say again, as the risk of becoming economic and last we be accused of selfish motives, that we do not make this proposal in the interest of the several States, but in that of the people of the United States and of a large part of the rest of the world. If we were selfishly concerned with the prosperity of the industry, there have been plenty of times in the past when the industry needed increased support by government purchasing power as much as it does now. We have made no such appeal on these occasions. We make it now because conditions seem to require it. We shall be glad to withdraw it when—lest our aid—we see the governments of the world in a whole set upon courses that make an early use of military aviation as a grand scale impossible. For the moment, that specification is by no means met.

With Faint Praise

THE faint writers of newspapers and all sorts of information on all sorts of subjects, but they frequently exhibit a lamentable ignorance in matters pertaining to modern air transportation. Uncollectedly believing that they are helping it along by giving it space in their columns, unconsciously they often succeed in doing more harm than good.

For example, a recent editorial in that most distinguished of dailies, the New York Times, a generous supporter of aeronautical activities, calls attention to the fact that one of the airfields is experimenting with the idea of installing berths in transport planes for the convenience of night travelers. So far, so good. The idea, although far from new, certainly merits further study and sympathetic attention. BUT then the writer goes on with a hypothetical study of the sensation of the night flying traveler. "Could he then hauled in several hours of recuperative sleep? The sense of the possibility can be based but a mile away in a bedroom or terra firma! Plans cannot always be kept as an even keel, and there are such

things as air pockets [—this in 1933!]. Suppose the pilot should go to sleep in the controls! . . . Amused (people) even when flying in the cockpit have no difficulty in dropping into a dreamless sleep despite the propeller's roar."

But the writer did not wish to be unconstructive. Having compared up the aircraft, he provides an antidote. He recommends to the tired pilot a study of the accident curves, and winds up with the comforting suggestion that "anyway, an insurance policy can be taken out for the family."

NOW if such an editorial had appeared under a 1928 date line there might have been little cause for embarrassment. Happily the writer is thoroughly devoid of an airplane's problems. Obviously he has never been introduced to the elusive diesel, nor been told that the level of sound intensity in the cabins of a modern transport airplane is below that of the average public car. Obviously he has never had the opportunity of comparing the riding qualities of the airplane with the totally shaking-up by swerving engines to which the veteran sleeping car passenger has become hardened. Why pilots should go to sleep on the job any more than railway engineers or bus drivers is also a mystery. It must have escaped the notice of the critic that some hundreds of passengers are even now traveling by air during every night, and that they would be quite as safe, and even more comfortable in berths than in the reclining chairs in which they now peacefully close away the eyes.

The point of it all in this over-confident writer are passing on to the public, as facts, erroneous ideas about dangers that exist only in their own imaginations. We of the aircraft industry list such other low sale and low comfortable it is to fly about in our airplanes, while, in spite of the efforts of public relations experts, the most genuine misinformation slips out to potential customers. All such writers should be "taken for a ride"—in a modern transport airplane.

Public Works and Aviation

IT IS more than two years since we first used these pages to advocate airport development as a particularly effective form of public employment relief. Under the conditions that then existed, most of the people who had the power to provide or to retard such a plan thought it impracticable to do anything. In a few states new airports were both and did ones were improved through the services of new unemployed and upon the relief rolls. Over most of the country's extent, however, nothing was done.

But that was two years ago, and evidently we were before our time. Now conditions have changed. Now it can no longer be argued that the difficulties in the way of promoting airport work is a depression is insuperable. The difficulties have been swept aside by

set of Congress. The Public Works Administration has been created, and \$3,300,000,000 have been appropriated, for the express purpose of carrying on with projects of which municipal airport development is almost a perfect type.

In our first editorial attack on the subject we suggested, and we must admit that we did not find particularly anyone about the realization of our dream, that local airport work should be backed by central government on a demanding scale, so that a certain contribution might be made by state governments and another contribution, for a small part of the necessary cost, might come from Washington. At that time there was no law to permit anything of the sort, at least in so far as Washington was concerned. Now a new law has been enacted, and direct federal grants for the support of local public works are being made in exactly the form that we had hoped for.

If a municipality wish to build a new airport or to improve an old one, or if a state seeks to carry out a project for a network of auxiliary fields, Washington is at last in a position to extend a helping hand. It is only necessary to secure the approval of the Public Works Administration. That gives, 80 per cent of the total cost of the work can be paid outright from the federal treasury, and the 20 per cent first mentioned can be borrowed from the same source on easy terms. The spending of the money so borrowed will save the municipality the immediate necessity of spending for relief of the unemployed and destitute, out of its own resources, a sum that might well be very nearly as large. The immediate financial burden on the local community is lightened, and the facilities for the use of airports are improved, with the city or state completely relieved of one-third of the cost and given a substantial number of years to pay off the remainder.

NONETHELESS in my, the Public Works Administration does not lend out large sums of money to everybody that comes along and asks for them. It is necessary to prove the real usefulness of the work proposed, to estimate value to the community and its value in providing employment. Those who are actually engaged in aviation have no doubt of the importance of adequate airport facilities for every community, and no trouble in furnishing evidence to support their case. Unfortunately the efforts of the Public Works Administration have not been actively concerned with aviation and they want to be shown nothing will be more useful in the showing process than the simple submission of a large number of widely scattered airport and landing field projects by many different towns and cities and states, each proposal backed by a record of the local situation and of the reasons why that particular community feels that it needs that particular work.

Apart from the need for improved airport facilities in many areas and, turning for a moment to the second point of our usefulness in the present emergency, it

is still true as it was in 1931 that airport and landing-field work has special advantages. The preliminary engineering and planning are simple. The actual employment of labor can begin almost immediately. The proportion of the total cost that goes directly to labor locally employed is large. A substantial amount of unskilled labor is needed. All these are points that PWA wishes clearly, and to which local governments anxious to promote relief in the most efficient fashion possible and to begin it with direct employment ought also to give the most careful consideration.

Unfortunately all this doesn't seem to have taken effect to any great extent as yet. Doubtless few applications for public works funds for airport work have been received, and some that have been received have been dejectedly made in their procrastination. This is a point on which every one of us can set to work to persuade the officials of his city and his state to look into their aeronautical problems and to see whether it isn't true that they need something in the way of new or additional ground facilities and that now is the best time to get them. The greater the number of intelligently-prepared applications that come to Washington, the more careful the consideration that is likely to be given to aeronautical public works projects as a class. At least 250 well supported applications ought to be filed within the next 90 days, but they won't be unless those of us who have aeronautical interests and know something about the technicalities of the field make it our business to appeal to the officials of our own communities, to show them what their own neighborhoods need, and to persuade them that they should go after it.

Hail and Farewell

EVERYWHERE in this issue are recorded something of the activities of Admiral Richard E. Byrd and his associates in preparing for the second Antarctic Expedition, and we hope, as new credits northwest from Little America, to keep our readers in touch with aeronautical activities in the Far South. Byrd's activities will assume an even more important place in this exposition than in the last. The Admiral will draw heavily upon several. Aviation will draw upon the Admiral, on his return, for a wealth of new information on what can be done in the air, and how it can best be done under difficult conditions. Of special interest will be the work done with the autogas taken along as an auxiliary to the Conquest Condor transport. Reports on the condition of the Ford airplane abandoned on the ice three years ago and now to be reclaimed, will throw a revealing light on the weather-resistant qualities of a construction structure under severe exposure conditions.

In the meantime, our best wishes go to the Admiral and his crew. It is no lighter task to look forward to a year and a half in the Antarctic, but it is confidently expected that the results will repay the effort.

FLYING EQUIPMENT

The British Comper "Moose"

THE Comper "Moose" represents a type of airplane which, although not having received much attention so far in this country, is very popular abroad. European private owners include in its type of design which the French own as is a single seat monoplane, a word that implies a week-end trip to the Riviera, a dash up into Scotland for a bit of grouse shooting or a cold-water run to St. Moritz for the sheep. Machines for such purposes must be inherently small, should have folding wings for easy storage, should be fast and economical, and comfortable in flight for at least three people and their baggage.

The "Moose," designed by Flight Lieut. K. Comper, fits into such requirements. It is also adaptable to commercial use of faster service. It is a three-seater, full cantilever, low-wing monoplane, powered by a 180-hp. Gipsy Major engine. Passenger comfort is assured by a complete glider in endurance covering two seats forward and one aft. A large hatch in the tail deck holds three large suitcases (which, by the way, come with the machine) a



The D-332 version of Comper's Mosquito after setting a new cross-Channel speed record.

small locker in the wing roots and is used for tools and leg locks.

The machine is entirely wood framed with fabric and plywood covering. Engine mount, retracting undercarriage and tail section are of steel.

The retracting gear is simple and apparently effective. Each wheel with rubber disk shock absorber, mounted in a fixed in a box-like structure of steel tubes hinged to the front spar of the wing stub. A lever system manipulated by a handle in the cockpit swings the wheels back into the wing or forward into the landing position, as required. An emergency landing and landing machine has been worked out for the folding wings. Altimeters are operated by a system of push rods which do not have to be manipulated when the wings are folded and which do not require complicated adjustment when the wings are folded into place.

General specifications are: Length overall, 25 ft., 1 in.; span, 27 ft. 6 in.; height, 5 ft. 5 in.; width (wing tips folded), 11 ft. 10 in.; weight, empty, 1,342 lb.; useful load, 955 lb.; gross weight, 2,297 lb.; wing loading, 129 lb. per sq. ft.; power loading, 17 lb. per horsepower.



The Comper "Moose"



The Dewoitine D-332 Tramport

REPRESENTING the last word in machines for long-range transportation of passengers is the Par Kent as interpreted by the designers, the Dewoitine D-332 offers an opportunity to compare current design practice with American transport machines recently developed in these pages. In general, French and American designers at the moment show a common trend toward the all-metal low-wing monoplane as contrasted with the tendency with which British manufacturers stick to the bi-plane and the Holland-built Fokker to the high-wing monoplane type. The American, looking toward the three-engine arrangement, however, is not in evidence. Obviously Air Orient believes that safety lies in greater power plant redundancy for routes where airplanes used fly over dangerous terrain (cf. KLM machines for regular service between Rotterdam, October, 1933).

AVIATION November, 1933

for many days without basic of shop drawings. The three Hispano-Suiza 24 engines have a total rating of 1,650 hp. Two engines are mounted in leading edge nacelles and one in the rear. All three carry much of the tail NACA type and Levauxon-lined structural propulsion are fitted.

With full load (20,570 lb.) the machine showed a top speed of 187 m.p.h. cruising at 156 m.p.h. Its normal range at cruising speed is 1,250 miles. With one engine cut an altitude of 9,750 ft. can be maintained. Maxed Drove, while testing the D-332, set last year's world's records for range and speed with heavy loads (see *Aviation*, October, 1933).

In general outline, the ship differs materially from the new American transport in that the wing is of unusually high aspect ratio and the fuselage is very long and relatively narrow. The tail surfaces, therefore, are comparatively small. The fuselage is approximately rectangular for its full length, an arrangement which permits maximum cabin headroom and simplifies construction materially. It is of a semi-monocoque pattern with four principal longitudinal ribs together a series of light bulkheads, the whole covered with a stressed skin of smooth sheet Vialat (a composite aluminum alloy sheet similar to Alclad). The wings are of the monoplane type, with one large tapered box girder running full length through the system of maximum wing thickness. Spars are contained out from the girder and the whole covered with a smooth skin of Vialat. Altimeters are conventional, and trailing edge flaps are actuated between the altimeters and the fuselage. The engine mountings are of chrome molybdenum steel tubing.

The main landing gear is built on two independent units, each not installed under an engine nacelle. No attack gear is provided, but full auxiliary landing gear is shown on the American-built Hispania are employed. As is common at European practice, the landing wheels are axially fixed. Shock absorbers are also provided.

For service in the Orient, accommodations are provided for eight passengers only. The crew consists normally of two pilots and a radio operator.

The general characteristics of the ship



Profile of Stinson's Model A Aircraft

are: Length overall, 41 ft. 7 in.; span, 34 ft. 3 in.; wing area, 1,914 sq. ft.; weight empty, 11,616 lb.; payload, 2,641 lb.; gross weight, 20,570 lb.

A Late Pursuit, the Boeing Fighter

THE influence of civil aviation on the military is again in evidence in the Boeing pursuit. The best of recent racing practice has been combined with military requirements. The metal monocoque structure with its smooth skin and extraordinary absence of external projections, represents probably the nearest approach to the optimum structural shape that has as far been attained. The wing and undercarriage arrangement follows closely that common in recent low-wing racing monoplanes, that is, the main control wires extend and the main landing gear supports are carried by short wing ribs built as an integral part of the fuselage girder. A system of cross-line wires whose members are all in tension provides lateral bracing for the wing and undercarriage.

Altimeters and rubber seat of the conventional subvented type but the elevator is provided with overhang balancing. The stabilizer is fixed, but longitudinal ribs is obtained by means of trailing edge flaps on the elevator. A similar arrangement is in use on the latest Boeing transport. A supercharged Pratt and Whitney engine provides the motive power.

Pilot vision is completely good for pursuit purposes. The cockpit is located well forward and high up on the fuselage, permitting a practically unobstructed view ahead, above, and to the rear.

Stinson Model A Airliner

ALTHOUGH details are lacking at the moment, it has been announced that the Stinson Aircraft Corporation has under construction a new high-speed transport with accommodations for eight passengers and two pilots. The plane will be powered with three Pratt engines, one at the side and two at the tail (see left) with the leading edge of the wing. The main landing wheels will retract into the under part of the nacelles.

With Foreign Builders

Continuing our policy of offering brief summaries of current European airplanes and engines.

WITH the clouds again hanging low over Europe, the air services of the several Powers are naturally not relaxing their latest views publicly. By peering through current issues of the French *Revue de l'Aviation*, we obtain sufficient information enough in light to include some general trends of military thought.

Berlin interest is still strong in the interceptor type, single-seat, high-performance fighter for night-and-day service. Two recent examples, both lightest of conventional design powered by all-cooled and all engines, are the *Arado* Ar-196 and the *Heinkel* He-100 and the *Heinkel* He-100. The *Fokker* Fokker and the *Heinkel* He-100, although of older design, are also in the class. For heavy bombing the *Heinkel* He-100, Heinkel has created considerable interest. This is a two-engine biplane characterized by a fuselage



The F.W.W. Wappler-powered racing plane.



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The amazing achievement of Byrd's historic flight occurred in November, 1928, when he flew from "Little America" to the South Pole and return in a Ford powered by two Wright "Whitwinds" and a Wright "Cyclone."

Now Byrd is making his second scientific expedition to the Antarctic. The new Curtiss-Wright Condor in which he will make his second flight to the South Pole is powered by two of the latest type of Wright "Cyclone" 700 h.p. Engines.



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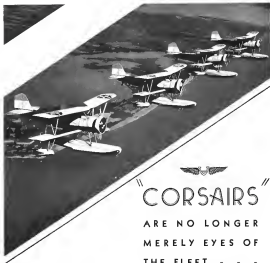
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Help!

FOR THE ROBINSON CRUSOES OF BUSINESS

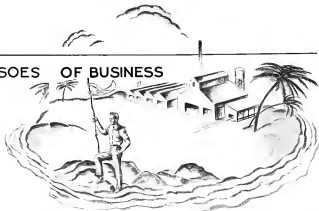
THROUGH your business be in the center of things or far off the beaten track, if you aren't in constant touch with the news and developments of your industry you are as isolated as was Robinson Crusoe . . . Yes, isolated!

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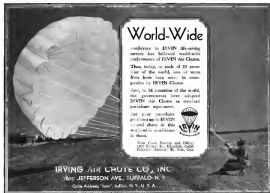
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